

# Crystallization Learning with the Delaunay Triangulation

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## Background

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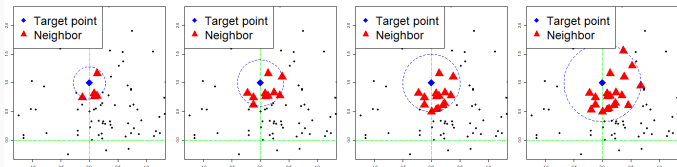
# Motivation

- Estimating the conditional expectation function  $\mu(\cdot) = E(Y|\cdot)$  under a regression model,

$$y_i = \mu(\mathbf{x}_i) + \epsilon_i, \quad i = 1, \dots, n, \quad (n > d), \quad (1)$$

where  $\mathbf{x}_i$  is a  $d$ -dimensional feature point in  $\mathcal{R}^d$ ,  $y_i \in \mathcal{R}$  is the observed response,  $\epsilon_1, \dots, \epsilon_n \in \mathcal{R}$  are i.i.d. random errors with  $E(\epsilon_i) = 0$  and  $E(\epsilon_i^2) < \infty$ .

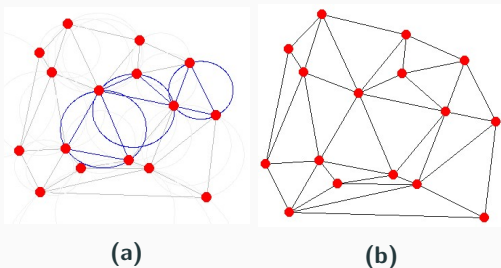
- Existing nonparametric methods:  $k$ -nearest neighbor, kernel regression, local linear regression, regression tree, random forest.
  - Advantages: Model-free; Robust in interpolation.
  - Disadvantage: Sensitive to the data density of  $\mathbf{x}_i$ s



**Figure 1:** Neighbor data points of the target point  $\mathbf{z}$  computed by the  $k$ -NN regression with  $k = 5, 10, 15, 20$ .

# Delaunay Interpolation: Delaunay Triangulation

- Let  $\mathbb{X} = \{\mathbf{x}_1, \dots, \mathbf{x}_n\} \subset \mathcal{R}^d$ . A triangulation of  $\mathbb{X}$  is a mesh of disjoint  $d$ -simplices  $\{\mathcal{S}_1, \dots, \mathcal{S}_m\}$  which fully cover the convex hull of  $\mathbb{X}$ ,  $\mathcal{H}(\mathbb{X})$ .
- Among all triangulations, the Delaunay triangulation is widely used for multivariate interpolation (de Berg et al., 2008) due to its smoothness.
- Let  $\mathcal{B}_j$  be the open ball whose boundary is the circumscribed sphere of  $\mathcal{S}_j$ . The Delaunay triangulation of  $\mathbb{X}$ , denoted as  $\mathcal{DT}(\mathbb{X})$ , is any triangulation of  $\mathbb{X}$  such that  $\mathcal{B}_j \cap \mathbb{X} = \emptyset$  for  $j = 1, \dots, m$ . (Empty-ball property)



**Figure 2:** (a) Graphical illustration of the empty-ball property of the Delaunay triangulation; (b) the Delaunay triangulation.

# Delaunay Interpolation: Estimation

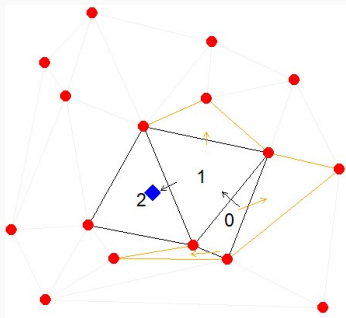
- Consider the data  $\{(\mathbf{x}_i, y_i) : i = 1, \dots, n\}$  from model (1), the Delaunay interpolation estimates the conditional expectation  $\mu(\mathbf{z})$  for all  $\mathbf{z} \in \mathcal{H}(\mathbb{X})$  in three steps:
  1. Construct the Delaunay triangulation  $\mathcal{DT}(\mathbb{X})$ ;
  2. Find the simplex  $\mathcal{S}(\mathbf{z}) \in \mathcal{DT}(\mathbb{X})$  such that  $\mathbf{z} \in \mathcal{S}(\mathbf{z})$ ;
  3. Obtain the estimator  $\hat{\mu}(\mathbf{z})$ .
- Let  $i_1(\mathbf{z}), \dots, i_{d+1}(\mathbf{z})$  denote the indices corresponding to the data points of  $\mathcal{S}(\mathbf{z})$ . With  $\gamma_1, \dots, \gamma_{d+1} \in [0, 1]$  such that  $\sum_{k=1}^{d+1} \gamma_k \mathbf{x}_{i_k(\mathbf{z})} = \mathbf{z}$  and  $\sum_{k=1}^{d+1} \gamma_k = 1$ , the estimator of de Berg et al. (2008) is

$$\hat{\mu}(\mathbf{z}) = \sum_{k=1}^{d+1} \gamma_k y_{i_k(\mathbf{z})}.$$

- However, the above approach requires a complete construction of  $\mathcal{DT}(\mathbb{X})$ , whose size grows exponentially with the dimension  $d$ . As a result, no existing algorithm is feasible when  $d > 7$  due to the limitations of computation time/power and memory space.

## Delaunay Interpolation: DELAUNAYSPARSE Algorithm

- Recently, Chang et al. (2020) developed the DELAUNAYSPARSE algorithm to find  $\mathcal{S}(\mathbf{z})$  for all  $\mathbf{z} \in \mathcal{H}(\mathbb{X})$ .
  - Obtaining a seed Delaunay simplex  $\mathcal{S}_{\text{seed}}$  close to  $\mathbf{z}$ ;
  - Growing neighbor Delaunay simplices of the explored ones in the direction of  $\mathbf{z}$  recursively;
  - Using the breadth first search to find  $\mathcal{S}(\mathbf{z})$ .



**Figure 3:** Graphical illustration of the DELAUNAYSPARSE algorithm.

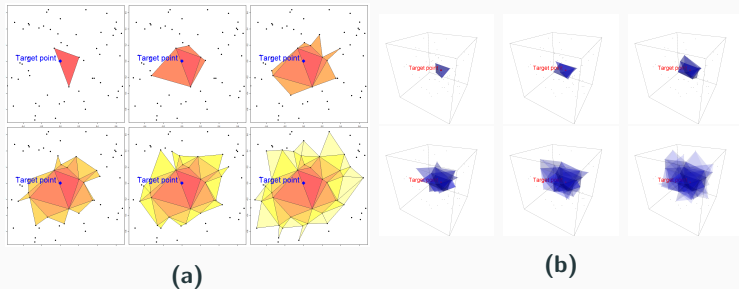
# Methodology

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# Crystallization Search for Delaunay Simplices

- Inspired by the DELAUNAYSPARSE algorithm, we develop the crystallization search to construct all the Delaunay simplices within the topological distance  $L$  to  $\mathcal{S}(\mathbf{z})$ , denoted as  $\mathcal{N}_L(\mathbf{z})$ .

(Computational Complexity:  $\mathcal{O}(d^L n)$ )



**Figure 4:** Crystallization search of  $\mathcal{N}_L(\mathbf{z})$  with respect to a target point  $\mathbf{z} \in \mathcal{H}(\mathbb{X})$  and  $L = 0, 1, 2$  (top row),  $L = 3, 4, 5$  (bottom row) in  $\mathbb{R}^2$  (a) and  $\mathbb{R}^3$  (b).



# Crystallization Learning

- Let  $\mathbb{V}_{\mathbf{z},L} = \cup_{S \in \mathcal{N}_L(\mathbf{z})} \mathbb{V}(S)$  denote the set of all the data points of the simplices in  $\mathcal{N}_L(\mathbf{z})$ . We propose the crystallization learning to estimate  $\mu(\mathbf{z})$  by fitting a local linear model,  $\mu(\mathbf{z}) = \alpha + \beta^T \mathbf{z}$ , to all the data points in  $\mathbb{V}_{\mathbf{z},L}$  instead of only the  $d + 1$  data points of  $S(\mathbf{z})$ .
- We estimate  $\alpha$  and  $\beta$  via the weighted least squares approach,

$$(\hat{\alpha}, \hat{\beta}) = \arg \min \sum_{\mathbf{x}_i \in \mathbb{V}_{\mathbf{z},L}} w_{\mathbf{z},L}(\mathbf{x}_i) (y_i - \alpha - \beta^T \mathbf{x}_i)^2,$$

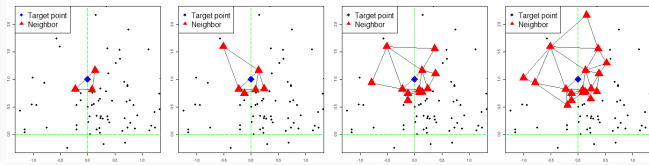
where  $w_{\mathbf{z},L}(\mathbf{x}_i)$  is larger if  $\mathbf{x}_i$  is closer to the target point  $\mathbf{z}$  and shared by more simplices of  $\mathcal{N}_L(\mathbf{z})$ .

- As a small  $L$  leads to overfitting and a large  $L$  makes  $\hat{\mu}(\cdot)$  overly smooth, we propose adapting the leave-one-out cross validation (LOO-CV) to select  $L$  with respect to the target point  $\mathbf{z}$

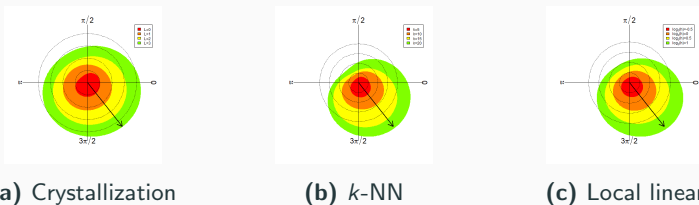
## Connection with Other Nonparametric Regression Methods

- Similar to existing nonparametric regression methods, our crystallization learning consists of three steps in estimating the conditional expectation  $\mu(\mathbf{z})$ :
  1. Selecting data points from  $\mathbb{X}$  as the neighbors of  $\mathbf{z}$  according to a specific criterion;
  2. Assigning weights to the selected neighbor data points;
  3. Fitting a local model to the selected neighbor data points.
- Since our crystallization learning and the existing methods mainly differ in the first two steps, we compare our crystallization learning with the  $k$ -nearest neighbor ( $k$ -NN) regression and the local linear regression in the computation of neighbor data points. We use the Euclidean distance in the  $k$ -NN regression and the Gaussian kernel in the local linear regression.

# Connection with Other Nonparametric Regression Methods



**Figure 5:** Neighbor data points of the target point  $z$  computed by the crystallization learning with  $L = 0, 1, 2, 3$ .



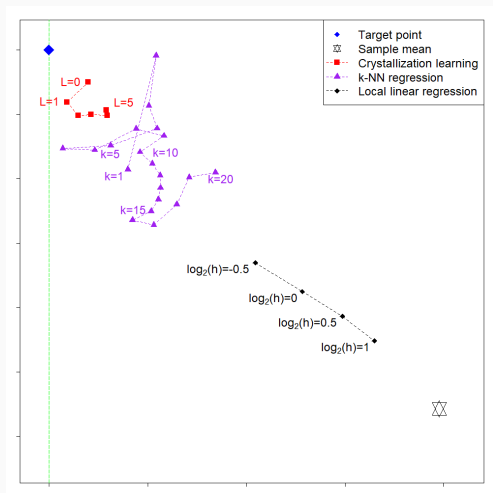
(a) Crystallization

(b)  $k$ -NN

(c) Local linear

**Figure 6:** Kernel density estimates of distributions of the directions from the target point  $z$  to its neighbor data points using different methods with different hyperparameter values. The arrow indicates the direction from the target point  $z$  to the sample mean of  $\mathbb{X}$ .

# Connection with Other Nonparametric Regression Methods



**Figure 7:** Paths of the (weighted) means of neighbor data points by different methods as the value of the hyperparameter increases.

# Experiments

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# Experiments

- We conduct experiments on synthetic data under two different scenarios (general internal points of  $\mathcal{H}(\mathbb{X})$ , or jump points of the feature data density):
  1. to illustrate the effectiveness of the crystallization learning in estimating the conditional expectation function  $\mu(\cdot)$ ;
  2. to evaluate the estimation accuracy of our approach in comparison with existing nonparametric regression methods, including the  $k$ -NN regression using the Euclidean distance, local linear regression using Gaussian kernel, multivariate kernel regression using Gaussian kernel (Hein, 2009) and Gaussian process models.
- We use the mean squared error (MSE) under the method  $\mathcal{M}$ ,

$$\text{MSE}_{\mathcal{M}} = \frac{1}{100} \sum_{k=1}^{100} \{\hat{\mu}_{\mathcal{M}}(\mathbf{z}_k) - \mu(\mathbf{z}_k)\}^2,$$

to evaluate the accuracy of the estimator  $\hat{\mu}_{\mathcal{M}}(\cdot)$  at the target points  $\mathbf{z}_1, \dots, \mathbf{z}_{100} \in \mathcal{H}(\mathbb{X})$ .

- We also apply our method to real data to investigate its empirical performance.

# Experiments on Synthetic Data

Table 2. Averaged values of  $\log(\text{MSE})$  and standard deviations in parentheses using crystallization learning (CL) in comparison with  $k$ -NN ( $k = 5, 10, k^*$ , where  $k^*$  equals the size of  $\mathbb{V}_{x,L}$ ), local linear (LL) regression, kernel regression (KR) and Gaussian process (GP) in estimating  $\mu(\cdot)$  under two scenarios, different sample sizes ( $n$ ) and different dimensions of the feature space ( $d$ ).

$d$	$n$	$\log(\text{MSE}_{\text{CL}})$	$\log\left(\frac{\text{MSE}_{\text{CL}}^{\text{ann}}}{\text{MSE}_{\text{CL}}}\right)$	$\log\left(\frac{\text{MSE}_{\text{LL}}^{\text{ann}}}{\text{MSE}_{\text{LL}}}\right)$	$\log\left(\frac{\text{MSE}_{\text{KR}}^{\text{ann}}}{\text{MSE}_{\text{KR}}}\right)$	$\log\left(\frac{\text{MSE}_{\text{GP}}^{\text{ann}}}{\text{MSE}_{\text{GP}}}\right)$	$\log\left(\frac{\text{MSE}_{\text{LL}}}{\text{MSE}_{\text{CL}}}\right)$	$\log\left(\frac{\text{MSE}_{\text{KR}}}{\text{MSE}_{\text{CL}}}\right)$	$\log\left(\frac{\text{MSE}_{\text{GP}}}{\text{MSE}_{\text{CL}}}\right)$
Scenario 1 (General internal points)									
5	200	-1.11(0.21)	0.23(0.09)	0.12(0.09)	0.33(0.11)	0.56(0.11)	0.57(0.11)	0.24(0.18)	
	500	-2.13(0.18)	0.55(0.13)	0.37(0.11)	0.45(0.13)	0.91(0.17)	0.94(0.17)	0.76(0.18)	
	1000	-2.04(0.18)	0.53(0.13)	0.42(0.13)	0.62(0.12)	1.18(0.19)	1.22(0.19)	0.41(0.20)	
	2000	-2.21(0.20)	0.48(0.14)	0.38(0.14)	0.59(0.16)	1.06(0.22)	1.08(0.21)	0.81(0.17)	
10	200	-0.03(0.16)	0.28(0.09)	0.13(0.07)	0.14(0.08)	0.10(0.07)	0.12(0.07)	-0.08(0.14)	
	500	0.01(0.21)	0.43(0.13)	0.31(0.10)	0.29(0.11)	0.47(0.12)	0.47(0.12)	-0.01(0.17)	
	1000	-0.50(0.22)	0.37(0.14)	0.30(0.12)	0.43(0.10)	0.54(0.12)	0.53(0.12)	-0.09(0.21)	
	2000	-0.67(0.20)	0.42(0.13)	0.33(0.12)	0.51(0.11)	0.59(0.16)	0.60(0.16)	0.10(0.14)	
20	200	1.46(0.14)	0.14(0.08)	-0.02(0.06)	-0.01(0.06)	-0.02(0.03)	-0.04(0.06)	0.17(0.15)	
	500	1.09(0.15)	0.25(0.10)	0.11(0.07)	-0.01(0.07)	-0.07(0.06)	-0.03(0.06)	-0.18(0.16)	
	1000	0.92(0.18)	0.48(0.11)	0.36(0.10)	0.00(0.11)	-0.10(0.08)	-0.02(0.08)	0.22(0.18)	
	2000	0.73(0.22)	0.24(0.15)	0.24(0.12)	0.06(0.11)	0.18(0.11)	0.14(0.11)	0.15(0.19)	
50	500	2.47(0.14)	0.08(0.09)	-0.02(0.07)	0.02(0.05)	-0.01(0.03)	-0.08(0.11)	0.06(0.19)	
	1000	2.32(0.17)	0.08(0.12)	-0.02(0.10)	0.04(0.06)	-0.03(0.03)	-0.13(0.12)	-0.22(0.18)	
	2000	2.12(0.17)	0.17(0.13)	0.18(0.10)	-0.01(0.06)	0.02(0.04)	0.00(0.11)	-0.08(0.19)	
Scenario 2 (Jump points of the feature data density)									
5	200	-0.72(0.17)	0.34(0.05)	0.33(0.04)	0.51(0.06)	0.60(0.07)	0.70(0.07)	0.32(0.10)	
	500	-1.46(0.15)	0.42(0.05)	0.31(0.05)	0.44(0.06)	0.92(0.09)	1.03(0.09)	0.59(0.11)	
	1000	-1.94(0.13)	0.48(0.06)	0.21(0.05)	0.33(0.07)	0.99(0.10)	1.11(0.10)	0.92(0.11)	
	2000	-1.87(0.17)	0.46(0.05)	0.26(0.05)	0.33(0.06)	1.43(0.11)	1.53(0.11)	1.10(0.11)	
10	200	0.59(0.12)	0.08(0.05)	0.03(0.04)	0.17(0.04)	0.09(0.03)	0.13(0.03)	0.14(0.09)	
	500	0.44(0.14)	0.18(0.04)	0.08(0.04)	0.05(0.04)	0.09(0.04)	0.15(0.04)	-0.07(0.08)	
	1000	0.27(0.11)	0.18(0.05)	0.11(0.04)	0.18(0.04)	0.29(0.05)	0.38(0.05)	-0.11(0.07)	
	2000	0.02(0.13)	0.23(0.04)	0.11(0.04)	0.17(0.04)	0.43(0.05)	0.49(0.05)	-0.12(0.07)	
20	200	1.92(0.12)	0.08(0.04)	0.03(0.03)	0.02(0.02)	-0.01(0.01)	-0.04(0.03)	0.04(0.07)	
	500	1.77(0.10)	0.14(0.05)	0.01(0.03)	-0.02(0.03)	-0.01(0.04)	-0.02(0.02)	-0.07(0.07)	
	1000	1.68(0.13)	0.08(0.05)	0.02(0.03)	-0.05(0.03)	-0.04(0.02)	-0.03(0.03)	-0.09(0.06)	
	2000	1.50(0.12)	0.11(0.05)	0.06(0.03)	0.08(0.03)	0.02(0.02)	0.09(0.03)	-0.11(0.07)	
50	500	2.85(0.09)	0.16(0.06)	0.05(0.04)	-0.01(0.04)	0.09(0.03)	0.14(0.06)	-0.04(0.08)	
	1000	2.90(0.09)	0.20(0.05)	0.08(0.04)	-0.03(0.02)	0.03(0.02)	0.19(0.06)	-0.10(0.07)	
	2000	2.82(0.10)	0.15(0.04)	0.08(0.03)	-0.01(0.01)	-0.01(0.01)	0.10(0.04)	-0.12(0.07)	

## Experiments on Real Data

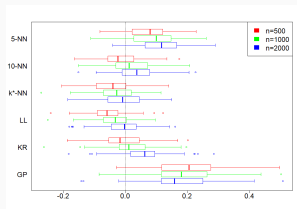
- We apply the crystallization learning to several real datasets from the UCI repository.
  1. The CASP dataset (Betancourt and Skolnick, 2001);
  2. The Concrete dataset (Yeh, 1998);
  3. The Parkinson's telemonitoring dataset (Tsanas et al., 2010) for the motor and total UPDRS scores.
- For each dataset, we take 100 bootstrap samples without replacement of size  $n$  ( $n = 200, 500, 1000$  or  $2000$ ) for training and 100 bootstrap samples of size 100 for testing.
- Based on the testing set, we quantify the performance of the method  $\mathcal{M}$  by the mean predictive squared error (MPSE),

$$\text{MPSE}_{\mathcal{M}} = \frac{1}{100} \sum_{k=1}^{100} \{\hat{\mu}_{\mathcal{M}}(\mathbf{z}_k) - y_k\}^2,$$

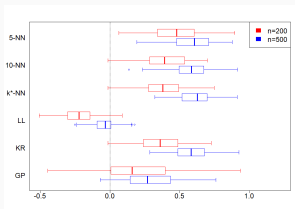
where  $y_k$ 's are responses corresponding to  $\mathbf{z}_k$ 's.



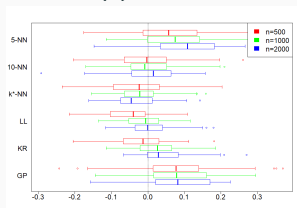
# Experiments on Real Data



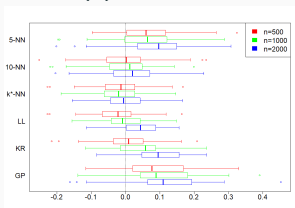
(a) CASP dataset



(b) Concrete dataset



(c) Parkinson's motor UPDRS

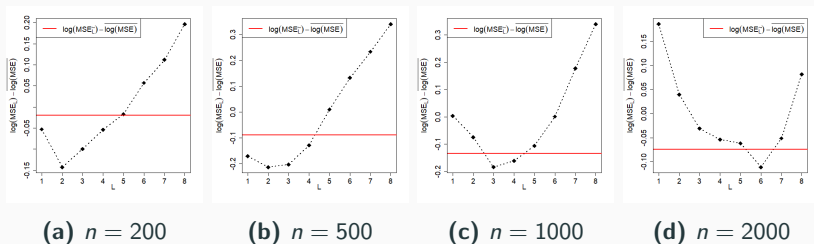


(d) Parkinson's total UPDRS

**Figure 8:** Boxplots of  $\log(\text{MPSE}_M/\text{MPSE}_{CL})$  corresponding to existing methods in estimating  $\mu(\cdot)$  under different datasets and sizes of the training set ( $n$ ).

## Experiments on $L$ selection

We conduct experiments to validate the proposed procedure of  $L$  selection, which suggests the effectiveness of our LOO-CV procedure in improving the estimation accuracy.



**Figure 9:** Averaged values of  $\log(\text{MSE}_L) - \log(\text{MSE})$  ( $L = 1, \dots, 8$ ) and  $\log(\text{MSE}_{\hat{L}}) - \log(\text{MSE})$  under different sample sizes ( $n$ ), where  $\text{MSE}_L$  is the MSE using the hyperparameter  $L$  and  $\log(\text{MSE}) = \sum_{L=1}^8 \log(\text{MSE}_L) / 8$ .

## References

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Thank you for listening.